DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 070 219 EC 050 212

TITLE	A Guide for the Management of Special Education Programs. 8.0 Appendices.
INSTITUTION	Santa Cruz County Superintendent of Schools, Calif.
PUB DATE	72
NOTE	93p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	*Administration; *Educational Programs; *Exceptional Child Education; *Guidelines; *Handicapped Children; Identification; Task Analysis

ABSTRACT

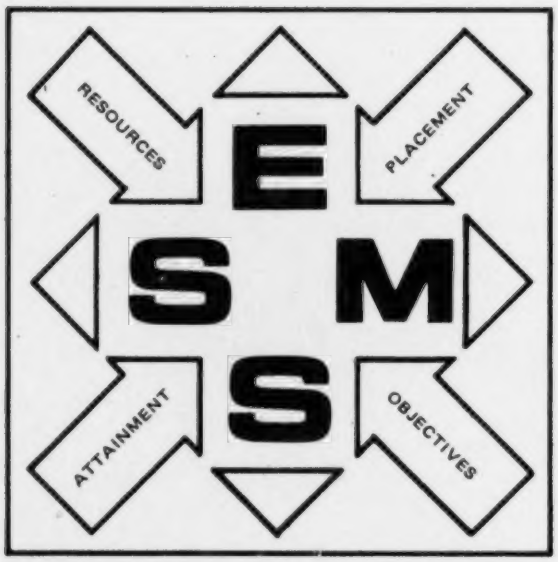
The eighth volume in an eight-part series on a task-based management system for special education programs presents definitions of terms used in the system, lists participants and consultants involved in the testing of project materials, and discusses the process of labeling exceptional children. (For related information, see also EC 050 205 through EC 050 211.) (GW)

A GUIDE FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

MENTALLY AND BEHAVIORALLY EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Project Number 44-00000-0000-925
EHA TITLE VI-B

ED 070219



SPECIAL EDUCATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

8.0 APPENDICES

Prepared Under
Contract By:
VORT CORPORATION
2100 Hanover St.
Palo Alto, Calif. 94306

EC 050 212

RICHARD D. STRUCK
Project Director and Director of Programs for Exceptional Children and Adults and Pupil Personnel Services

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701 OCEAN ST. ROOM 200
Santa Cruz, California 95060
Dr. RICHARD R. FICKEL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

COMPONENT 8.0

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 8.1

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

APPENDIX 8.1

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Accounting - the system of recording and summarizing financial transactions and analyzing, verifying and reporting the results.

Accountability tool - an instrument used to determine if a person has accomplished what he is responsible or answerable for.

* Assessment - the act of determining the degree or amount of. On the BCP chart, an assessment indicates which behavioral characteristics a pupil does and does not display.

Assessment tool - an instrument used to determine degree or amount of.

Baseline - observations gained over a period of time under circumstances not intentionally altered by the observer.

BCP - abbreviation for Behavioral Characteristics Progression.

BCP booklet - the booklet form of the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP) which aids in the observation and recording phase of BCP use.

BCP procedures - the guidelines developed to assist the teacher and/or support personnel in using the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP).

BCP chart - the two-dimensional array of 1,800 developmentally progressing behavioral characteristics from which learner objectives are determined for each pupil.

Behavioral characteristic - an observable and measurable trait, quality or property distinguishing an individual. 1,800 of these characteristics arrayed in developmental sequence form the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP).

Behavioral strand - one of the 45 separate, though not independent, horizontally progressing categories of behavior on the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP).

Communication tool - an instrument used to facilitate the exchange of thoughts, information, knowledge, understanding.

Continuous task - task which occurs throughout the entire school year.

Control group - in an experimental design contrasting two groups, that group not given the treatment whose effect is under study.

Criterion-referenced tool - an assessment instrument based upon defined or agreed-on performance.

* = definitions from Calif. State Board of Education Guidelines for School Districts to Use in Developing Procedures for Evaluating Certificated Personnel.

Delivery process - the collection of sequenced tasks necessary to produce the end product.

DCHM - Development Center for Handicapped Minors.

Duration - the amount of time a behavior continues.

EMR - educable mentally retarded.

Educational system - a group of interdependent processes which unite to define the relationship of parts within an educational program.

Evaluation tool - an instrument used to evaluate an employee based upon accomplished tasks and pupil progress.

Field personnel - those individuals outside of the project staff working in the areas of special and general education.

Frequency - the number of times a behavior is repeated in a given time period.

Function - one of the twenty categories or groupings of tasks on the Task Base Composite (TBC) identified as being necessary in the education of the exceptional pupil.

* Goal - a statement of broad direction or intent which is general and timeless and not concerned with a particular achievement within a specified time period.

Identifying behaviors - handicapping qualities or traits in each behavioral strand on the BCP which help to describe an exceptional pupil.

Incidence level - the rate of occurrence of a given behavioral characteristic.

Increment - one in the series of consecutive behavioral characteristics which progress from 1.0 to 50.0 on the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP).

In-service training - instruction, teaching, or education which takes place during working hours or as part of the position requirements.

Instructional tool - an instrument used to facilitate the education of a pupil.

Job description - a list of tasks and responsibilities to be completed by a person in a given position (job title) in order to attain learner objectives.

Learner objective - a behavioral characteristic which is specified as the pupil's objective. Synonomous terms include instructional objective, behavioral objective, performance objective.

Management - the identification, assignment, implementation, and evaluation of program tasks in order to attain goals and objectives.

Management system - a process for managing task completion associated with the attainment of program and learner objectives, and organized so that all functions of the total program contribute to this completion.

Manpower requirements - the numbers and types of program personnel required to complete a given task.

MDM - mentally disordered minors.

Need - a deficiency or lack in an area necessary for the survival and/or growth of an individual or group of individuals.

Non-continuous task - task which occurs only at intervals during the school year (not daily or weekly) due to seasonal factors, beginning of the year, etc.

Non-primary chart - the second chart in order of importance or value to a given pupil. The chart (either BCP #1-22 or BCP #23-45) which least clearly matches a given pupil's behavioral characteristics level.

Non-prime line - the line of educational tasks on the TBC which do not directly involve the pupil but which are supportive of the Prime-line tasks.

Non-prime task - educational task which does not directly involve the pupil but supports Prime tasks.

* Objective - a devised accomplishment that can be verified within a given time and under specifiable conditions which, if attained, advances the system toward a corresponding goal.

* Personnel evaluation - the process of making considered judgments concerning the professional competencies of a certificated employee based upon accomplished tasks and pupil progress.

PERT - Program Evaluation Review Technique.

Post test - a test or assessment administered after experimental treatment is given

Pre test - a test or assessment administered before any experimental treatment is given.

Primary chart - the first chart in order of importance or value to a given pupil The chart (either BCP #1-22 or BCP # 23-45) which most clearly matches a given pupil's behavioral characteristics level.

Prime line - the line of educational tasks on the Task Base Composite (TBC) which directly involve the pupil in their completion.

Prime task - educational task which directly involves the pupil with the educator, teacher, parent, etc.

Process - a series of tasks or operations leading to an end. In education, the end is the educated pupil.

Process sequenced functions - those sequenced functions on the Task Base Composite which support the pupil.

Pupil - a child or young person who attends school or is in the charge of an instructor or tutor.

Pupil performance - behavioral characteristics which a pupil displays; e.g., on the BCP chart.

Pupil progress - the measurable advancement of a pupil to a higher or more developed stage. Pupil progress is manifested in left to right movement on the BCP chart.

Resource - a reserve or potential source of supply or support.

Resource allocation - the distribution of resources for a specific purpose or to particular persons or things.

Skill - a developed aptitude or ability to do a unit of work (task) competently.

Solution - an answer to a problem or fulfillment of a need.

Staff loading - assignment of specific numbers of personnel to positions or tasks.

* Standard - a basis for the measure of quantity, value, or quality which is set up and established by authority or mutual acceptance. The Behavioral Characteristics Progression can be a standard for measuring pupil progress in terms of attainment of learner objectives.

Standardized tool - an assessment instrument based on performance correlated to scores which are applicable to a specific population

Stull Bill - E.C. 1385-89; as it deals with evaluation: "School board's written guidelines must contain certain provisions. The written evaluation guidelines for certificated employees adopted by each school board must at least provide for the following:

1. Establishment of standards of expected student progress in each area of study and of techniques for assessment of that progress.
2. Assessment of certificated personnel competence as it relates to the standards which are established for individual certificated personnel.
3. Assessment of other duties normally required to be performed by certificated employees as adjunct to their regular assignments.
4. Establishment of procedures and techniques for ascertaining that the certificated employee is maintaining proper control and is preserving a suitable learning environment."

Target or experimental group - in an experimental design contrasting two groups, that group of subjects given the treatment whose effect is under investigation.

Task - a unit of work or activity necessary to attain an objective and to be completed within a given time period.

TBC - abbreviation for Task Base Composite.

TDF - abbreviation for Task Description Form developed by VORT Corporation to record information on tasks performed by personnel positions.

TMR - trainable mentally retarded.

Umbrella functions - those functions on the Task Base Composite which do not directly involve the pupil but are supportive of the program.

Umbrella tasks - those non-sequenced tasks within the umbrella functions.

APPENDIX 8.2

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS

APPENDIX 8.2

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS

ALAMEDA COUNTY

* F. L. Brislawn, Coordinator
Special Education Services
Piedmont City Unified School District

* David Carlisle, Director
Research, Development and Planning
Pleasanton Joint Elementary School District

* David Ramirez, Psychologist
New Haven Unified School District

* Al Tudyman, Director, Special Education
Oakland City Unified School District

* June Whiteford, Director, Special Education Services
Newark Unified School District

* Ruth Williams, Supervisor, Remedial Reading
San Leandro Unified School District

* David Yamamoto, Coordinator, Special Education
Livermore Valley Joint Unified School District

AMADOR COUNTY

* Carl D. Johnson, Psychologist
Director of Special Education
Office of the Amador County Superintendent of Schools

BUTTE COUNTY

* Anne Cosart, Coordinator of Services,
Physically Handicapped
Office of the Butte County Superintendent of Schools

* Gale Glenn, Director, Special Services
Office of the Butte County Superintendent of Schools

* David Sonnenshine, School Psychologist
Chico Unified School District

CALAVERAS COUNTY

Milton K. Goodridge
Calaveras County Superintendent of Schools

COLUSA COUNTY

* Don Leber, Psychologist
Colusa County Schools

CONTRA COSTA COUNTY

* Jerry Cochran, Coordinator, Mentally Retarded
Contra Costa County Schools

Joe Hendrickson, Director of Special Services
Lafayette Elementary School District

R. F. Keefe, Assistant Superintendent
Contra Costa County Schools

* = Completed Questionnaire No. 1 only

Mary Maton, Coordinator, Special Education
John Swett Unified School District

Gerald Peterson, Coordinator
Curriculum for Mentally Retarded
Contra Costa County Schools

Wilma Winter, Supervisor, Special Education
Richmond Unified School District

DEL NORTE COUNTY

E. Verne Babcock, Assistant Superintendent
Del Norte County Schools

FRESNO COUNTY

George E. Kaspian, Director, Special Services
Fresno County Schools

Richard G. Kisling, Director, Special Education
Fresno City Unified School District

GLENN COUNTY

John Meyer, Assistant Superintendent and
Director, Special Services
Glenn County Schools

HUMBOLDT COUNTY

Dewell H. Byrd, Director, Orthopedically Handicapped
and Educable Mentally Retarded
Humboldt County Schools

IMPERIAL COUNTY

* Rose del Rio, Director
Psychological Services and Special Education
Imperial County Schools

INYO COUNTY

* M. H. Needham, Director of Special Education
Inyo County Schools

KERN COUNTY

* Mrs. Charlotte Chichester, Director, Special Service
Delano Union Elementary School District

Mrs. Hazel Hobba, Director, Physically Exceptional
Children and Health Services
Kern County Schools

* Jack L. Schuetz, Director, Special Education
Kern Joint Union High School District

KINGS COUNTY

* Kunogondus Maliepaard, Special Education Director
Kings County Schools

LAKE COUNTY

* Ralph E. Leeder, Director, Special Education
Lake County Schools

LASSEN COUNTY

Earl L. Sage, Director, Special Services
Lassen County Schools

LOS ANGELES COUNTY

* H. Edward Ahrens, Supervisor, Special Education
Long Beach Unified School District

* George N. Allebrand, Director, Whittier Area
Cooperative Special Education Program

Mrs. Eris Black, Psychologist
Burbank Unified School District

James Copeland, Director of Special Programs
Downey Unified School District

* Roy J. Cousins, Director, Special Education
and Special Projects
Covina-Valley Unified School District

Walter Dombrowski, Coordinator
Pupil Personnel Services
Palos Verdes Peninsula Unified

Irwin Fields, Director, Special Projects
Centinela Valley Union High School District

Mrs. Ethel Forcinelli, Coordinator of Special Programs
Claremont Unified School District

* Mrs. Rubylee Gracy, Coordinator, Special Education
Pomona Unified School District

V. R. Hansen, Psychologist
Lynwood Unified School District

* Mrs. Ruthe Harris, Coordinator
Guidance and Special Education
Bellflower Unified School District

* William D. Hatcher, Assistant Director
Special Education
Rowland Unified School District

Virginia Huschke, Special Education Consultant
Torrance Unified School District

* Bruce Newlin, Assistant Superintendent
Lancaster Elementary School District

* Robert Pennington, Director, Special Services
Manhattan Beach City Elementary School District

Paul Phelps, Special Education Consultant
Montebello Unified School District

* Jack Rouman, Director
Guidance and Special Education
Montebello Unified School District

* John Rostykus, Coordinator, Special Services
Newhall Elementary School District

William Sandison, Director of Special Education
Hacienda-La Puente Unified School District

William E. Starr, Supervisor, Mentally Retarded
and Multi-Handicapped
Los Angeles City Unified School District

Marian Stewart, Specialist/Special Education
El Rancho Unified School District

* Leonard M. Ungar, Consultant, Special Education
Pasadena Unified School District

* Daniel J. Watkins, Special Education Specialist
Baldwin Park Unified School District

* Patricia Wickwire, Ph.D.
Coordinator of Psychological Services
South Bay Union High School District

Jean (Terry) Wood, Director, Special Education
Los Angeles County Schools

MADERA COUNTY

Adrian Clark, Coordinator, Special Education
Madera County Schools

MARIN COUNTY

Edward Brennan, Director, Special Services
Marin County Schools

Rudolph S. Kupfer, Coordinator, Programs for the Physically Exceptional
Marin County Schools

Dirk West, Coordinator, Mentally Exceptional
Marin County Schools

MARIPOSA COUNTY

* Erik Bruun, Elementary Supervisor
Mariposa County Schools

Claude H. May, Coordinator of Special Education
Mariposa County Unified School District

MENDOCINO COUNTY

* Bert Elliott, Assistant Superintendent
Mendocino County Schools

MERCED COUNTY

* Don Keeney, Coordinator, Special Education
Merced County Schools

Herman Olson, Director, Special Services
Merced City Elementary School District

MODOC COUNTY

* Mrs. Clara C. Eddie, County Superintendent of Schoo

MONO COUNTY

* David R. Simons, Coordinator of Special Services
Mono County Office of Education

MONTEREY COUNTY

* J. H. Lang, Director, Service Programs Department
Monterey Peninsula Unified School District

NAPA COUNTY

* Wesley St. John, Administrator of Special Education
Napa County Schools

NEVADA COUNTY

* E. La Monte Ohlson, Special Education;
Director, Research and Guidance
Nevada County Schools

ORANGE COUNTY

* Cecil Berry, Director of Special Programs
Santa Ana Unified School District

* Mrs. Betty Darke, Coordinator of Special Services
Westminster Elementary School District

* Donald Greene, Administrator, Special Programs
La Habra City Elementary School District

* Rose Ludwig, Special Education
Ocean View Elementary School District

* Don Reed, Coordinator, Special Education
Orange Unified School District

William A. Thompson, Director, Special Services
Anaheim Elementary School District

* Margaret Joy Valpey, District Psychologist
Placentia Unified School District

PLACER COUNTY

* Bruce Becker, Program Administrator,
Special Education
Placer County Schools

* Charles Murphy, Director, Special Services
and Assistant Superintendent
Roseville City Elementary School District

RIVERSIDE COUNTY

* Lois J. Carritte, Director, Special Education
Banning Unified School District

* Donald Wamba, Consultant, Educationally Handicapped
Riverside Unified School District

SACRAMENTO COUNTY

Ellis Bowman, Director of Special Services
Rio Linda Union Elementary School District

* Paul Jongeward, Director, Special Services
and Pupil Personnel
Folsom-Cordova Unified School District

* Harold Parker, Director, Special Education
Special Programs Office
Sacramento City Unified School District

Ralph Richardson, Director, Special Education
San Juan Unified School District

SAN BENITO COUNTY

* John Paizis, Director of Psychological Services and Special Education
San Benito County Schools

SAN BERNARDINO COUNTY

Robert Cochran, Director, Special Services
Ontario-Montclair Elementary School District

Herbert M. Cole, Jr., Director of Special Services
San Bernardino City Unified School District

Charles W. Kondrit, Coordinator,
Special Programs and Services
Rialto Unified School District

Dennis W. Ruble, Coordinator, Special Services
Fontana Unified School District

Lucy Siegrist, Director, Special Services
San Bernardino County Schools

SAN DIEGO COUNTY

Elmer C. Cameron, Director, Special Services
Escondido City Elementary School District

Milton Grossman, Director, Special Services and District Psychologist
San Diego City Unified School District

* Clifford L. Hatch, Director of Guidance
South Bay Union Elementary School District

* R. A. Lanoue, Principal
California Avenue School
Vista City Unified School District

* John W. Lloyd, Director, Special Programs and Pupil Personnel Services
Escondido Union High School District

Glen Pierson, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
San Diego County Schools

* Juan J. Solis, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
Carlsbad Union Elementary School District

* William D. Stainback, Director, Special Education
Cajon Valley Union Elementary School District

* David C. Wright, Exceptional Child Services Directo
San Diego City Unified School District

SAN FRANCISCO CITY AND COUNTY

* Richard C. Robbins, Director, Special Education and Pupil Services
San Francisco City Unified School District

SAN JOAQUIN COUNTY

* Don Evans, Coordinator, Special Education
Stockton City Unified School District

Carolyn M. Fowle, Ed. D., Director of Pupil Personn
Lodi Unified School District

Charles B. Jones, Director, Special Services
San Joaquin County Schools

SAN LUIS OBISPO COUNTY

* Charles V. Watson, Psychologist
San Luis Obispo County Schools

SAN MATEO COUNTY

* Ray Graber, Director of Pupil Personnel Services
San Mateo City School District

Deane Brown, Consultant, Special Education
Ravenswood City Elementary School District

David W. Ridley, Coordinator, Special Services
Belmont Elementary School District

Dr. Robert L. Rottman, Associate Superintendent
San Bruno Park Elementary School District

SANTA BARBARA COUNTY

Raymond Bauer, Coordinator of Special Education
Goleta Union Elementary School District

Sidney R. Ottman, Director, Special Education
and Pupil Personnel
Santa Barbara County Schools

Thomas J. Murphy, Director, Special Education
Santa Barbara City Elementary and High School District

Dr. Irwin Wapner, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
Lompoc Unified School District

SANTA CLARA COUNTY

Arta Jo Chambers, Supervisor, Special Services
Campbell Union High School District

* Lyle D. Chambers, Director, Special Services
Union Elementary School District

* James Doyle, Supervisor, Special Programs
East Side Union High School District

* Donald W. Howlett, Director, Special Services
Franklin-McKinley Elementary School District

* Jack Kingsbury, Assistant Superintendent and
Director, Special Services
Alum Rock Union Elementary School District

Edward Kueffer, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
Cupertino Union Elementary School District

A. John Mattila, Director, Special Services
Sunnyvale Elementary School District

* Al Mendizabal, Director, Special Services
Morgan Hill Unified School District

* Anthony Perreira, Coordinator, Special Education
and Guidance
Campbell Union Elementary School District

SANTA CRUZ COUNTY

* Ronald C. Blanchette, Coordinator of Special Service
Soquel Union Elementary School District

* Kenneth Lamb, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
Santa Cruz City Elementary and High School District

* Grant Sickles, Director of Special Services
Scotts Valley Union Elementary School District

** Staff of the Pajaro Valley Unified School District:

Carlos O. Lopez, Coordinator, Special Services

Robert S. Annett, Teacher
Learning Disability Group

William M. Boone, Psychologist

Phyllis J. Christian, Nurse

Mary A. Correia, Teacher, Educationally
Handicapped and Learning Disability

Kathleen De Bernardi, Teacher
Learning Disability

Jean J. Doerr, Psychologist

Joyce E. Fiechtner, Nurse

Pamela A. Gonsalves, Speech Corrections

Anne L. Harrison, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped

Barbara L. Heppe, Speech Corrections

Steve Johnson, Teacher, Learning Disability

Suzanne Kesterson, Speech Corrections

Kenneth L. McElroy, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped

Donna S. McGlaughlin, Speech Corrections

Jane Michaelson, Nurse

Dorothy E. Mills, Speech Corrections

Ardean Nordgren, Teacher, Learning Disability

Ruth M. Perry, Nurse

Martin L. Rappaport, Psychologist

Pauline M. Smith, Nurse

Francis E. Thome, Teacher, Learning Disabilit

Bonnie R. Wendt, Psychologist

Margery M. Wylie, Speech Corrections

** Staff of the Santa Cruz County Office of Education
Programs for Exceptional Children and Adults:

Richard D. Struck, Director
Programs for Exceptional Children
and Adults and Pupil Personnel Services

Jack P. Wendt, Assistant Director
Programs for Exceptional Children
and Adults and Pupil Personnel Services

Robert H. Mathew, Assistant Director,
Programs for Exceptional Children and Adults

** = Completed Questionnaire No. 2 only

** Staff of the Santa Cruz County Office of Education (continued):

Elaine Alster, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Ejlert Andersen, Teacher,

Betty Baldwin, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Ruth Barrow, Teacher, Elementary TMR

Kay Bartlett, Senior Public Health Nurse

Mary Bevernich, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Mary Cikith, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Gary Clark, Head Teacher, Elementary TMR

Teri Corn, Teacher's Aide, Development Center

Victor Coronado, Teacher, Secondary TMR

Edith Crooks, Secretary

Loreen Cunningham, Teacher's Aide, Secondary TMR

Paul Dragavon, Speech Therapist

Linda Egner, Audiometrist

Linda Ellis, Secretary

Shirley Foster, Teacher, Mentally Disordered Minors

Robert Hartman, Head Teacher, Juvenile Hall

Ted Hollingsworth, Teacher, Elementary TMR

Marsha Holt, Cl

Joanne Howard,

Jerry Hynes, Te

Carol Johnson,

Harry Kelly, He

Sandra Koblich,

George Kodros,

D. William Lawr
Workshop for

Jay Lang, Teach

Burnis Lyons, He

Mary McCabe, Tea

Barry Marks, Tea

Lynne Midkiff, S

Thelma Mims, Sec

Walter Nicol, Te

William Norris,

Suzanne Paizis,

Eve Pecchenino,
and Coordinat
Center

nta Cruz County Office of Education (continued):

ter, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

ersen, Teacher,

win, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

w, Teacher, Elementary TMR

tt, Senior Public Health Nurse

nich, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

h, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

, Head Teacher, Elementary TMR

Teacher's Aide, Development Center

onado, Teacher, Secondary TMR

ks, Secretary

ningham, Teacher's Aide, Secondary TMR

von, Speech Therapist

r, Audiometrist

s, Secretary

ster, Teacher, Mentally Disordered Minors

man, Head Teacher, Juvenile Hall

gsworth, Teacher, Elementary TMR

Marsha Holt, Clinical Transcriber

Joanne Howard, Teacher, Mentally Disordered Minors

Jerry Hynes, Teacher's Aide, Development Center

Carol Johnson, Teacher, Development Center

Harry Kelly, Head Teacher, Development Center

Sandra Koblich, Teacher, Development Center

George Kodros, Teacher's Aide, Secondary TMR

D. William Lawrence, Foreman, Sheltered Workshop for Handicapped Adults

Jay Lang, Teacher, Drug Dependent Minors

Burnis Lyons, Head Teacher, Drug Dependent Minors

Mary McCabe, Teacher, Development Center

Barry Marks, Teacher, Elementary TMR

Lynne Midkiff, Staff Nurse

Thelma Mims, Secretary

Walter Nicol, Teacher, Secondary TMR

William Norris, Psychologist

Suzanne Paizis, Consultant, Gifted Minors

Eve Pecchenino, Head Teacher, Secondary TMR, and Coordinator, Diagnostic and Counseling Center

** Staff of the Santa Cruz County Office of Education (continued):

Helen Phippen, Teacher, Hard of Hearing

Eleanor Pugh, Staff Secretary

Shirley Rawls, Teacher's Aide, Development Center

Asenath Rheuby, Teacher's Aide, Secondary TMR

Robert Ridgeway, Mobility Instructor and Teacher, Visually Handicapped

Herb Roesch, Teacher, Hard of Hearing

Dr. Gene Russell, Vocational Skills Counselor for the Blind

Carol Sedar, Teacher, Elementary TMR

Evelyn Silva, Teacher's Aide, Development Center

Margaret Smith, Teacher, Secondary TMR

Shirley Smith, Teacher, Secondary TMR

Julie Sullivan, Head Teacher, Elementary TMR

Kenneth Tashiro, Teacher, Secondary TMR

Joan Thigpin, Teacher, Drug Dependent Minors

Leonard Thigpin, Psychologist

Pat Thornton, Teacher, Juvenile Hall

Alice Tindall, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Ruth Tindall, Teacher's Aide, Elementary TMR

Jean Tofflemire, Teacher, Visually Handicapped

Carmelita Traulsen, Teacher's Aide, Physically Handicapped

John Tuck, Social Worker

Collette von Duering, Teacher, Handicapped Adults

Florence Warren, Audiometrist

LaVonne West, Head Teacher, Physically Handicapped

Lillian Wickstrom, Teacher, Physically Handicapped

Eloise Wilson, Teacher, Development Center

Barbara Wood, Speech Therapist

* SHASTA COUNTY

Richard Phillips, Handicapped Children Program Developer
Shasta County Schools

SISKIYOU COUNTY

* Frank Tallerico, Head of Special Education
Siskiyou County Schools

SOLANO COUNTY

* D. Danielson, Coordinator, Special Education Programs
Solano County Schools

* Percy Haugen, Coordinator, Special Education
Fairfield-Suisun Joint Unified School District

SONOMA COUNTY

* Robert Reiland, Director, Special Education
Sonoma County Office of Education

STANISLAUS COUNTY

* Leander W. Binna, School Psychologist
Turlock Joint Elementary School District and Turlock Joint Union High School District

Harold A. Clark, Coordinator, Educationally Handicapped
Stanislaus County Schools

* Leonard J. Clark, Director, Special Education
Modesto City Elementary and High School District

* Robert M. Colville, Coordinator,
Physically Handicapped, Stanislaus County School

Richard L. Simonton, Coordinator,
Visually Impaired, Stanislaus County Schools

SUTTER COUNTY

A. Karperos, Director, Special Services
Yuba City Unified School District

* Walter Swanson, Coordinator, Special Education
Sutter-Yuba Counties
Sutter County Schools

TEHAMA COUNTY

* William R. Davis, Administrator
Special Schools and Services
Tehama County Schools

TRINITY COUNTY

* Don S. Stewart, Principal, Special Education
Trinity County Schools

TULARE COUNTY

* Guy Chapman, Director, Special Education
Tulare County Schools

TUOLUMNE COUNTY

* Leo D. Sandoval, Director of Auxiliary Services
Tuolumne County Schools

VENTURA COUNTY

David L. Baarstad, Coordinator, Special Education
Ventura Unified School District

V. Glenn Johnson, Assistant Superintendent
Special Services
Ventura County Schools

George Linn, Director, Special Education
Ventura County Schools

* Robert M. Miller, Director, Special Education Services
Oxnard Union High School District

* Rodney R. Mortenson, Director, Pupil Personnel Services
Oxnard Elementary School District

YOLO COUNTY

* Mrs. Johanna Bauer, Special Education Coordinator
Davis Joint Unified School District

* Richard N. Page, Director, Special Programs and Projects
Yolo County Schools

Lee T. Sheldon, Director of Special Education and
Pupil Personnel Services
Woodland Joint Unified School District

APPENDIX 8.3

TASK ANALYSIS PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX 8.3

TASK ANALYSIS PARTICIPANTS

SANTA CRUZ COUNTY OFFICE OF EDUCATION
PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AND ADULTS

Richard D. Struck, Director
Programs for Exceptional Children
and Adults and Pupil Personnel Services

Jack P. Wendt, Assistant Director
Programs for Exceptional Children
and Adults and Pupil Personnel Services

Robert H. Mathew, Assistant Director
Programs for Exceptional Children and Adults

Calabasas Special Training Classes:
(Elementary Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Elaine Alster, Teacher's Aide
Betty Baldwin, Teacher's Aide
Ruth Barrow, Teacher
Mary Bevernich, Teacher's Aide
Mary Cikith, Teacher's Aide
Gary Clark, Head Teacher
Barry Marks, Teacher
Carol Sedar, Teacher

Development Center for Handicapped Minors:
(Profoundly Retarded and Multi-Handicapped)

Teri Corn, Teacher's Aide
Linda Ellis, Secretary
Jerry Hynes, Teacher's Aide
Carol Johnson, Permit Teacher
Harry Kelly, Head Teacher
Sandra Koblich, Permit Teacher
Mary McCabe, Teacher
Shirley Rawls, Teacher's Aide
Evelyn Silva, Teacher's Aide
Eloise Wilson, Permit Teacher

Duncan Holbert School:
(Elementary and Secondary Physically Handicapped)

Carmelita Traulsen, Teacher's Aide
LaVonne West, Head Teacher
Lillian Wickstrom, Teacher

Gifted Children:

Suzanne Paizis, Consultant

Goodwill Class for Handicapped Adults:

Collette von Duering, Teacher

Itinerant Staff:

Linda Egner, Audiometrist
Thelma Mims, Secretary
Helen Phippen, Teacher, Hard of Hearing
Robert Ridgeway, Mobility Instructor and Teacher, Visually Handicapped
Herb Roesch, Teacher, Hard of Hearing
Dr. Gene Russell, Vocational Skills Counselor for the Blind
Jean Tofflemire, Teacher, Visually Handicapped
Florence Warren, Audiometrist
Barbara Wood, Speech Therapist

Juvenile Hall School:

Robert Hartman, Head Teacher
Pat Thornton, Teacher

Manresa Diagnostic and Counseling Center:

Kay Bartlett, Senior Public Health Nurse
Paul Dragavon, Speech Therapist
Marsha Holt, Clinical Transcriber
Lynne Midkiff, Staff Nurse
William Norris, Psychologist
Eve Pecchenino, Program Coordinator
Eleanor Pugh, Staff Secretary
Leonard Thigpin, Psychologist
John Tuck, Social Worker

Manresa Family Counseling Service:

Reynold Bean, Associate Project Coordinator
Harris Clemes, Project Coordinator
Lynn Gellenbeck, Staff Secretary
Julie Holmes, Secretary
Ilona Krop, Family Therapist
Audelia E. MacGregor, Community Worker
Ladislao Pineda, Community Worker

Mentally Disordered Minors, Pediatric Treatment Center:

Shirley Foster, Teacher
Joanne Howard, Permit Teacher

Natural Bridges Special Training Classes:
(Elementary Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Ted Hollingsworth, Teacher
Julie Sullivan, Head Teacher
Alice Tindall, Teacher's Aide
Ruth Tindall, Teacher's Aide

Sheltered Workshop for Handicapped Adults:

Ejlert Andersen, Teacher
D. William Lawrence, Foreman

Special Training Farm:
(Secondary Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Victor Coronado, Teacher
Edith Crooks, Secretary
Loreen Cunningham, Teacher's Aide
George Kodros, Teacher's Aide
Walter Nicol, Teacher
Eve Pecchenino, Head Teacher
Asenath Rheuby, Teacher's Aide
Margaret Smith, Teacher
Shirley Smith, Teacher
Kenneth Tashiro, Teacher

Sunshine School:
(Secondary, Program for Drug Dependent Minors)

Jay Lang, Teacher
Burnis Lyons, Head Teacher
Joan Thigpin, Teacher

PAJARO VALLEY UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
(Santa Cruz County)

James S. Baker, Director
Elementary Education

Carlos O. Lopez, Coordinator
Special Services

Robert S. Annett, Teacher
Learning Disability Group
Calabasas Elementary School

William M. Boone, Psychologist

Phyllis J. Christian, Nurse

Mary A. Correia, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped and Learning Disability
Aromas Elementary School

Kathleen De Bernardi, Teacher
Learning Disability
Hall Elementary School

Jean J. Doerr, Psychologist

Joyce E. Fiechtner, Nurse

Pamela A. Gonsalves, Speech Corrections

Anne L. Harrison, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Mar Vista Elementary School

Barbara L. Heppe, Speech Corrections

Steve Johnson, Teacher
Learning Disability
Aptos Junior and Senior High Schools

Suzanne Kesterson, Speech Corrections

Kenneth L. McElroy, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Rio del Mar Elementary School

Donna S. McGlaughlin, Speech Corrections

Jane Michaelson, Nurse

Dorothy E. Mills, Speech Corrections

Ardean Nordgren, Teacher
Learning Disability
Valencia Elementary School

Ruth M. Perry, Nurse

Martin L. Rappaport, Psychologist

Pauline M. Smith, Nurse

Francis E. Thome, Teacher
Learning Disability
Rolling Hills Junior High School

Bonnie R. Wendt, Psychologist

Joanne Wilson, Teacher
Learning Disability
E. A. Hall Elementary School

Margery M. Wylie, Speech Corrections

LOS ANGELES CITY UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
SPECIAL EDUCATION BRANCH

Dr. Ernest P. Willenberg, Director
Special Education Branch

William E. Starr, Supervisor
Mentally Retarded and Multi-Handicapped

Eugene Greenfield, Specialist for
Educationally Handicapped

Avis Buzolich, Consultant

Judith Hassoldt, Consultant

Louis Pascone, Consultant

Caesar Smith, Consultant

Gloria Smith, Consultant

Dr. Louis Bernoff, Program Coordinator

John Aldrain, Teacher
Ninth Street School (Mentally Retarded)

Della Blakeway, Principal
McDonnell Avenue School (Trainable Mentally Retard

Charles Borgwardt, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Welby Way Elementary School

Judy Cecchini, Teacher
105th Street Development Center

Ann Christian, Teacher
West Valley School(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Kay Curnow, Principal
East Valley School (Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Ann Dunsworth, Teacher
East Valley School (Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Helene Dyer, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Grandview Elementary School

L. G. Hamersley
Special Education Branch Office

Harriette Haugness, Teacher
East Valley School (Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Victoria Helms, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Overland Avenue Elementary School

Barbara Lane, Teacher
Benjamin Banneker Elementary School
(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Hyman Lipshutz, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Mark Twain Junior High School

Fred Lull, Principal
C. Morley Sellery Elementary School
(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Gerry Mackie, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Haskell Elementary School

Steven Mark, Principal
West Valley School

Fay Mitchnick, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Carthay Center Elementary School

Suzanne Ogg, Teacher,
Educationally Handicapped
Nora Sterry Elementary School

Edith Perez, Teacher
Ninth Street School (Mentally Retarded)

Bernard Schurchard, Teacher
Ninth Street School (Mentally Retarded)

Joseph Schulleeta, Teacher
Ninth Street School (Mentally Retarded)

Marion Snyder, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Stagg Street Elementary School

Jane Toland, Principal
Benjamin Banneker Elementary School
(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Francine Tovstein, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Cahuenga Elementary School

Sue Vogel, Teacher
Benjamin Banneker Elementary School
(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Mona von Hoetzendorff, Teacher
West Valley School (Trainable Mentally Retarded

Arnold Wall, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Porter Junior High School

Doreen Wallet, Teacher
Benjamin Banneker Elementary School
(Trainable Mentally Retarded)

Mrs. White, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Berendo Junior High School

Walter Wilson, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped
Sun Valley Junior High School

APPENDIX 8.4

BEHAVIORAL CHARACTERISTICS PROGRESSION CONSULTANTS

APPENDIX 8.4

BEHAVIORAL CHARACTERISTICS PROGRESSION CONSULTANTS

Thomas Ball, Research Specialist
Pacific State Hospital, Pomona

Ruth O. Barrow, Teacher
TMR Special Training Class
Calabasas School, Santa Cruz County

Bernice Baumgartner, Director of Education
Office of Mental Retardation
Commonwealth of Pennsylvania

Reynold Bean, Director
Watsonville Family Service

Jerry Berstein
Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

William M. Boone, Psychologist
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Leslie Brinegar, Chief
Division of Special Education
California State Department of Education

Pat Buxton, Development Project Specialist
Curriculum Research and Development Center
Yeshiva University, New York

Douglas Clark, Consultant
Bureau of Program Development and Evaluation
California State Department of Education

Gary K. Clark, Head Teacher
TMR Special Training Class
Calabasas School, Santa Cruz County

Harris Clemes, Project Coordinator
Manresa Family Counseling Service
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Aaron Cohen
Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

Camilla Collins, Teacher's Aide
Children's Center of Sacramento
Sacramento County Office of Education

Craig Conway, Speech and Hearing Specialist
Soquel Union Elementary School District

Mary Correia, Teacher
Learning Disability Group
Aromas School, Pajaro Valley Unified District

William M. Cruickshank, Ph.D.
Professor of Education, University of Michigan

Loreen Cunningham, Teacher's Aide
TMR Special Training Farm
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Patricia Davison, Developmental Project Assistant
Curriculum Research and Development Center
Yeshiva University, New York

Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

Carol Dickson, Head Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
San Juan Unified School District

Paul A. Dragavon, Speech Therapist
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Clara Lee Edgar, Ph.D.
Pacific State Hospital, Costa Mesa

David Franks
Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

Jessie Furukawa, Project Assistant
Sacramento County Office of Education

Phyllis Gaffnee, Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Santa Clara Unified School District

William Gardner, Ph. D., Chairman
Department of Studies of Behavioral Disabilities
University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

Herbert Goldstein, Ph.D., Director, Curriculum
Research and Development Center in Mental Retardation
Yeshiva University, New York

Cyril J. Helton, Consultant
Special Programs and Services
Sacramento County Office of Education

Robert Hicks, Ph. D.
Professor of Psychology
San Jose State College

Fred Hollander, Program Chief
Napa State Hospital

Ernest Jackson, Coordinator
Special Education
Mt. Diablo Unified School District

Arthur R. Johnson, Director
Special Schools and Services
Sacramento County Office of Education

Donna C. Johnson, Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Charles Keaster, Consultant, Bureau of
Educationally Handicapped & Mentally Exceptional
California State Department of Education

Edward A. Keuffer, Ph. D.
Director, Special Services
Cupertino Union Elementary School District

Sandra Koblick, Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Irene Kolker
Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

Ilona Krop, Family Therapist
Manresa Family Counseling Service
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Ron Lawson, School Principal
Fairview State Hospital

Robert H. Mathew, Assistant Director
Programs for Exceptional Children
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Kenneth L. McElroy, Teacher, Educationally Handicapped, Rio del Mar School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Lynne Midkiff, Public Health Nurse
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Walter H. Nicol, Teacher
TMR Special Training Farm
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Ardean H. Nordgren, Teacher
Learning Disability Group, Valencia School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

William Norris, Psychometrist
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Sarah Oelberg, Development Program Specialist
Curriculum Research and Development Center
Yeshiva University, New York

Suzanne Ogg, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped, Nora Sterry School
Los Angeles Unified School District

Joseph Ovick, Acting Head Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Eve Pecchenino, Coordinator
Manresa Diagnostic and Counseling Center
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Marjery Rae, Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Sacramento Children's Home
Sacramento County Office of Education

Martin Rappaport, Psychologist
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Phil Reiss
Curriculum Research and Development Center staff
Yeshiva University, New York

Asenath Rheuby, Teacher's Aide
TMR Special Training Farm
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Ralph Richardson
Director, Special Education
San Juan Unified School District

Harlaine Roome, Teacher's Aide
TMR Special Training Class, Calabasas School
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Robert T. Ross, M.D., Chief of Research
Fairview State Hospital, Costa Mesa

Jerome Rothstein, Ph.D.
Department of Special Education
San Francisco State College

Diane Scardina, Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Vannoy School, Castro Valley School District

Margaret A. Scheffelin, Ph.D., Consultant, Bureau
of Educationally Handicapped & Mentally Exceptional
California State Department of Education

Willfred G. Schmidt
Project Advisory Committee Member and parent
San Juan Unified School District

Barbara Seminoff, Psychologist
Santa Clara Unified School District

Pat Sheffer, Psychologist
Morgan Hill Unified School District

Simi Valley Unified School District staff

Joan M. Smith, Ph.D., Director
Learning Center, Sacramento

Margaret L. Smith, Teacher
TMR Special Training Farm
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Kenneth A. Tashiro, Teacher
TMR Special Training Farm
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Helene S. Thorpe, M.D.
University of California at Davis Medical School

Judy Walden, Development Project Specialist
Curriculum Research and Development Center
Yeshiva University, New York

Henry Warnken, Director
Treat Learning Center
Mt. Diablo Unified School District

Barry Wendel, Teacher
Children's Center School
Napa State Hospital

Bonnie R. Wendt, Psychologist
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

APPENDIX 8.5

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS FOR TASK ANALYSIS

APPENDIX 8.5

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS FOR TASK ANALYSIS

Julie Anderson
Teacher, Educable Mentally Retarded
Saratoga High School
Los Gatos-Saratoga Unified School District

Joyce Andrews
Learning Center Teacher
Stevens Creek School
Cupertino Union Elementary School District

Robert S. Annett
Teacher, Learning Disability Group
Calabasas School
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified School District

Mary Jane Blacet
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Taft School
Redwood City Elementary School District

Dorris Carlson
Learning Center Teacher
Taft School
Redwood City Elementary School District

Thelma Curtis
Learning Center Teacher
Taft School
Redwood City Elementary School District

Shirley Foster
Teacher, Mentally Disordered Minors
Pediatric Treatment Center
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Kathryn Gum
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Taft School
Redwood City Elementary School District

Anne Harrison
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Mar Vista School
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified School District

Stephen Johnson
Teacher, Learning Disability Group
Aptos Junior and Senior High Schools
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified School District

Harriet Kaye
Teacher, Learning Disability Group
36th Street School
Los Angeles Unified School District

Joseph C. Marx
Administrator
TMR Programs
San Mateo County Schools

Kenneth L. McElroy
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Rio del Mar School
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified School District

Ardean H. Nordgren
Teacher, Learning Disability Group
Valencia School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Suzanne Ogg
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Nora Sterry Elementary School
Los Angeles Unified School District

Barbara Olson
Resource Teacher
Stevens Creek School
Cupertino Union Elementary School District

Janice Robbins
Learning Center Teacher
Stevens Creek School
Cupertino Union Elementary School District

Lorna Russell
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Charles Peck School
San Juan Unified School District

Diane Scardina
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Vannoy School
Castro Valley School District

Patricia Schall
Learning Center Teacher
Taft School
Redwood City Elementary School District

Linda Shinn
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Garfield School
San Juan Unified School District

Francis E. Thome
Teacher, Learning Disability Group
Rolling Hills School
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified School District

Mildred Wharton
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Saratoga High School
Los Gatos-Saratoga Unified School District

Rick Williams
Teacher
Garfield School
San Juan Unified School District

Caro Wood
Teacher, Educationally Handicapped
Taft School
Redwood City Unified School District

APPENDIX 8.6

BCP FIELD TEST PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX 8.6

BCP FIELD TEST PARTICIPANTS

Daisy Addicott
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Fresno County Department of Education

Chris Althof
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Bob Anderson
Coordinator, Special Schools
Fresno County Department of Education

June Andrews
Teacher's Aide, Mariposa TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Gerte Argue
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Sandi Barker
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Jeanne Bartelt
Motor Specialist
San Juan Unified School District

Mike Berkowitz
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Dorothy Bloom
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Margaret Bryant
Teacher, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Sandi Buck
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Evelyn Burns
Teacher, Mar Vista School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Rod Calkins
Teacher, Zonta Children's Center
San Jose

John Chesney
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Sandi Christensen
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Marella Clark, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Clara County Office of Education

Mike Clark
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Clara County Office of Education

Teri Corn, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Virginia Davidge, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
San Juan Unified School District

Tim Davis
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Kermit Domie
Director, Zonta Children's Center
San Jose

Anne Ellis
Teacher, Kerman TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

George Elmer
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Joette Farand
Occupational Therapist
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Shirley Foster
Teacher, Mentally Disordered Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Ruth Georgian
Speech Consultant
Fresno County Department of Education

Gloria Giarrizzo
Special Education Consultant
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Kathy Gibson, Supervising Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Ann Gizdich, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Patricia Golditch
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Dennis Gregory
Teacher, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Lynn Hack
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Pearl Hanson
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Anne Harrison, Teacher
Educationally Handicapped, Mar Vista School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Jean M. Harrison
Teacher, Mar Vista School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Helen Hermreck
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
San Juan Unified School District

Betty Hill
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Sharon Hilty
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Margaret Hoff
Teacher, San Martin School
Morgan Hill Unified School District

Joanne Howard
Teacher's Aide, Mentally Disordered Minors
Pediatric Treatment Center, Santa Cruz County

Gail Hultman, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
San Juan Unified School District

Meg Hume
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Pat Hurley
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Jerald Hynes, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Eloise Ibara
Teacher, Reedley School
Fresno County Department of Education

Brian Iles
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Luvena Jacobsen
Teacher's Aide, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Office of Education

Donna C. Johnson
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Edna Johnson
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Harry Kelly, Head Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Lorraine Kennie
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Nora Kinoshita
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Pat Kintana
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Sandra Koblick
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Betty Krokosky
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Helen Kuehnert
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Libby Lambeth
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

JoAnne Landau
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Steve Landau
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Stephanie Law
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Barry Lewis
Teacher, Mariposa TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Sally Leytze
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Patrice Lineker
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Cathy Luke
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Lyn Lywandowsky
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Jim Manriquez
Teacher's Aide, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Mary P. McCabe
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Barbara McCray
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Marilyn McGrail, Acting Head Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Elaine Miller
Speech Therapist, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Michelle Morgan
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Virginia Mulrane, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Totomi Nakamura
Teacher's Aide, Reedley School
Fresno County Department of Education

Joseph Ovick, Acting Head Teacher
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Jo Ann Pendleton
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Jean Platas
Psychologist Intern
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Suzanne Plourd, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Charlotte Pratt
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Betty Prichard
Teacher's Aide, Mariposa TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Charlene Ramirez
Teacher's Aide, Kerman School
Fresno County Department of Education

Shirley Rawls, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Elizabeth Ritsch
Teacher's Aide, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Ruth Ruedger, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Lou Salmons
Teacher, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Louis Sarrao
Coordinator, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Ellen Schrimsher
Teacher, Shields TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Evelyn Silva, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Verna Snell
Special Education Consultant
Fresno County Department of Education

Sue Stackhouse
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Patricia Stanfield
Teacher, San Martin School
Morgan Hill Unified School District

Edward E. Stigge
Principal, Laurel Ruff TMR Center
San Juan Unified School District

Betty Summerville
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Sal Sunzeri, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Barbara Taylor
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Carmen Terreual
Teacher, Selma School
Fresno County Department of Education

Barbara Thomas
Psychologist
Fresno County Department of Education

Wanda Turkot
Teacher, Mariposa TMR School
Fresno County Department of Education

Maria Velasquez, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Mary L. Warshaw
Teacher, Mar Vista School
Pajaro Valley Unified School District

Francile Watkins
Speech Therapist
Fresno County Department of Education

Wilma Westmoreland
Teacher's Aide, Selma School
Fresno County Department of Education

Erma Wilkes
Teacher, Laurel Ruff TMR School
San Juan Unified School District

Gerry Will
Teacher, Compensatory Education Project
Fairview State Hospital

Chuck Wilson
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

Eloise L. Wilson
Teacher, Development Center for Handicapped Minors
Santa Cruz County Office of Education

Gertrude Woodard, Teacher's Aide
Development Center for Handicapped Minors
County of Santa Clara Office of Education

APPENDIX 8.7

LABELING AND THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

APPENDIX 8.7

LABELING AND THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

To discuss the mentally retarded one might begin with a synopsis of the history of labels. Labels have been assigned to delineate the levels of mental retardation for many years. Idiot, imbecile and moron have denoted ranges in intellectual functioning as determined by I.Q. scores. Although they were meant to be precise terms (idiot = I.Q. of 0-19, imbecile = I.Q. of 20-49, moron = I.Q. of 50-79), their meanings became corrupted by the lay population and came generally to be used to describe very foolish or stupid people. Because of their disagreeable and degrading connotations, idiot, imbecile, and moron have been replaced by educable mentally retarded (EMR), trainable mentally retarded (TMR) and profoundly mentally retarded (custodial). Further, the term mentally retarded has been substituted for feebleminded and mentally deficient.

Current authorities such as Heber, Sloan and Birch and Bensberg are in general agreement as to the gross characteristics one can ascribe to the present three levels of retardation. The EMR, although he functions intellectually below the average for the general population and is typically unable to cope with the regular school curriculum at the standard age, has a potential for achieving academic skills up to the 3rd-6th grade level and many social and occupational skills. His mental age is within the eight to twelve year range at maturity. The TMR has potential for training in self care, social adjustment in the home, oral communication, and economic usefulness in the home or sheltered environment. However, generally he is not considered capable of acquiring any academic skills, such as functional reading or arithmetic. His mental age at maturity ranges from approximately three and one half to eight years. The profoundly retarded adult by definition reaches a mental age of no more than

three and one-half years. He may display some motor and speech development, but even as an adult the profoundly retarded individual is so severely limited that he is seldom capable of taking care of even his own bodily needs such as feeding and toileting. He will always require close, parental-like supervision and for this reason the profoundly retarded person is referred to as custodial.

Labels have been attached to these levels of retardation to denote the degree of need or the emphasis of training for the child. If a child is labeled EMR, the concentration is on academics rather than on self-help skills as stressed with the TMR. Categorizing children by use of labels is thought to make education and training more efficient since it is felt all individuals of the same general type can be dealt with most easily together.

However, labeling presents many problems. Grouping people into categories can result in a loss of individual personalities and human qualities. In order to group, one must consider certain qualities (such as I.Q.) and ignore others (such as learning rate). It might be said that people lose their individuality in this categorization process because the traits that make them truly different from other people are overlooked. They are classified on the basis of gross similarities to others.

Also, there is a tendency in labeling to stereotype people: that is, to attribute the characteristics commonly associated with the label to all people in the category. One of the major misconceptions about the retarded is that specific clinical types of retardation have unique differences in qualitative and quantitative psychological and intellectual functioning. It has been assumed for years

that there are distinct differences between exogenous (brain-injured) retardation, endogenous (cultural-familial) retardation, and mongolism. Studies undertaken to validate this assumption have proven it to be fallacious, however, Dunn and Capobianco (1954) found no significant differences in their arithmetic studies of computation, reasoning, achievement, reversals, and understanding the concept of zero between brain-injured and familial types. Murphy (1956), working with the same population, found no differences in verbal production and concrete performance as measured by the Stanford-Binet and Draw-a-Man tests. Semmel (1960) found no significant differences in teacher ratings of mongoloid and brain-injured in the areas of self-help, social, motor, and academic and vocational skills. The authors of all these studies concur that teaching programs should be based on behavioral characteristics rather than on etiology.

In another group of studies, specific stereotypes of the retarded were examined. Gallagher (1957) found that the stereotype of the brain-injured child with perceptual problems and other behavior disorders was not valid. Gardener (1959) found his population of brain-injured to be no more responsive to stimuli and no more active than the mongoloids he studied, thus questioning the validity of the stereotype of the hyperactive, brain-injured child. Blessing (1959) studied the popularly conceived "docile," "amenable" mongoloid and found that he displayed the full spectrum of emotional and social responses, not just those on the passive end. Cantor (1959) found that the "rhythmic" mongoloid had a worse sense of rhythm than normals. The authors of this group of studies conclude that since characteristics of retardation are not universal, generalization and stereotyping should be avoided.

Another study dealing with the problem of stereotyping (Gibson and Gibbons, 1958) analyzed the popular misconception that the number of diagnostic signs on a mongoloid (physical stigmata such as

sparse hair, flat nasal bridge, protruding tongue, etc.) correlate negatively with intelligence. These experimenters found just the opposite, however; that a positive relation existed between the two. That is, the greater the number of physical signs, the higher the intelligence of the child. These authors share the previously stated conclusion that children must be placed in an educational program based not on physical or diagnostic labels, but on behavioral abilities.

Another problem with labeling is that it tends to promote the "self-fulfilling prophecy" phenomenon. In other words, the performance of the labeled individual will be influenced by the expectancies of those with whom he interacts. If the parents and teachers of a child have been told that he is profoundly retarded and that such children generally never learn to feed themselves, they might possibly not expect this behavior from him and the probability that he will ever display it is greatly reduced. To impose limits on expectancies by means of labeling reduces the potential of the educational process. Because of labels, the child may not be presented with certain learning situations, as with the trainable retarded who is not usually exposed to numbers or reading, not on the basis of his individual characteristics but on the basis of the gross expectations of his group. The possibility of his learning this material was not excluded by his own physical or mental limitations but by those imposed from without.

Numerous studies have been undertaken to show how the self-fulfilling prophecy operates. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1966) gave teachers names of children who would show "unusual intellectual gains" during the school year based upon a test designed to predict "academic blooming." These children were randomly chosen from the total group to which the test was administered. Eight months

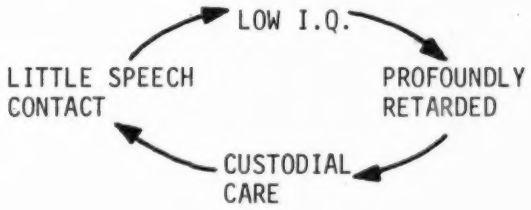
later all the children were retested using the same test. The results showed that those children from whom the teachers had been led to expect greater intellectual gain showed a significantly greater gain in I.Q. scores than did the control children. Some children gained as many as 24.8 I.Q. points in excess of the 16.2 gained by their control group.

In a similar experiment (Beez, 1968), a psychologist's report predicting either "good" or "poor" school performance determined how much the teacher presented to the child to be recalled as well as how much he actually did learn.

These studies offer evidence to support the premise that labeling influences teacher expectations, which become translated into teacher behavior. This teacher behavior in turn elicits the expected pupil behavior. The pupil's behavior is thus indirectly influenced by a condition over which he has little control--the labeling of his intellectual level. One begins to question whether the content and methods of school programs improve academic performance or whether improvement is due to the favorable expectancies of teachers, parents and administrators.

A further drawback to labeling is that it tends to reinforce learning problems. A good example of this is in the area of language development or expressive speech. The Stanford-Binet is the most widely used test to determine children's I.Q.'s and from the score obtained on this test the category each child falls into (gifted, normal, EMR, TMR, profoundly retarded) is determined. MacCubrey (1971) offered the explanation that this test depends heavily on verbal response, making a child's I.Q. greatly affected by his ability to communicate orally. If a child has poor language development he scores low in I.Q. He is thus labeled profoundly retarded and is put in a custodial program in which there may be

minor emphasis on speech training. Further, it has been hypothesized (Semmel and Dolley, 1971) that adults associating with the retarded "limit their verbal interaction to simple statements and questions and thus impoverish the verbal environment of such children." There is little chance that this child's speech and subsequently his I.Q. will improve in such a program. Such a child is trapped in a non-progressive circle with very little chance of escape, as is illustrated in the chart below.



Yet another harmful efect of labeling is the stigma, the "undesirable differentness" a person who is labeled feels about himself. There is some evidence that the self-image is greatly lowered when one is placed in a special category. Welch (1965) & Meyerowitz (1962) showed that EMR children labeled and segregated on the basis of intellectual inferiority not only made smaller academic gains than the retarded children in regular classes but also showed a significantly greater degree of self-derogation and saw themselves as inadequate and rejected. It seems that interaction with normals results in better performance as well as an increased feeling of competence and worth. The feeling of different-ness appears to be more detrimental than the high level competition intellectually superior peers offer.

A study of retarded persons who graduated from the vocational training program at a California state hospital was undertaken to show the stigma of inferior mental capacity (Edgerton, 1967). Of the

forty-eight adults interviewed not one was able to admit the "real" reason for hospitalization. They attributed their confinement to nerves (2), mental illness (2), alcoholism (3), epilepsy (4), sexual delinquency (5), criminal offenses (5), physical illness (7), need for education (8), and rejection or abandonment of parents (12), but never to mental retardation. Not one person admitted that he was rightfully institutionalized. Instead, they overwhelmingly blamed institutionalization for their incompetence. This unanimous denial could lead one to believe that an individual cannot live with the label "retarded" without destroying his conception of himself.

It seems that labeling has so many deleterious affects on the individual as to make it counterproductive in the education of the retarded. If there could be as many labels as people so as to take into consideration all possible constellations of characteristics and hierarchies of needs, labels might then be validly applied. Presently, first, middle, and last names seem to serve this function. However, if there were a different label for each person as with names, they would lose one of their main functions, grouping of individuals for efficiency. Should this efficiency be sacrificed, however, to humanize and individualize education? An answer might be in the negative with the accompanying explanation that the real world constraints of time, money and resources must be considered, and therefore efficiency cannot be so easily rejected. Nevertheless, the education of a mentally retarded child should and <u>can</u> be based on his own needs as determined by his individual characteristics rather than on the characteristics associated with his label. It requires that we define the child in terms of what he can do rather than what he can't do and that at the basis of his education are his individual characteristics, not his label.

Much of education in the past has been accepted on faith rather than on its proven merits. A child's mere presence in a classroom was generally considered indicative of the acquisition of necessary information. Possibly this could account for much of the controversy that has filled the area. Recently, however, people have begun to genuinely question education both in its purpose and actual operation. Educators have been asked to become increasingly more analytical, asked to explain what they are attempting to achieve and the methods they are employing.

Education has begun to purge itself of private interpretations, intangibles, immeasurables, indefinables, and unapproachables. In doing so, it has turned to behavior. The behavioral approach to education describes learning as a change in behavior resulting from experience, practice or training. As a pupil moves along the continum of characteristics beginning with the earliest behavior displayed by a baby and ending with the most developmentally complex and socially adaptive behavior shown by an adult, his progress is made manifest in his changing behavioral characteristics.

The behavioral approach to education has many advantages over previous, less defined approaches. It is objective since it is observable and measurable and leaves very little room for individual interpretation. A behavioral characteristic determined for a child can be checked for reliability and validity by another observer or by the same observer at another point in time. In its objectivity, the behavioral approach enhances communication between all levels of the educational process since everyone is able to use common descriptions and terms. Another important advantage is that a behavioral progression imposes no limits or boundaries nor does it make any judgments. Since it is only concerned with the displayed behavior and not with norms or standards, it eliminates labels and ages, the

problems of which need not be reiterated. It is very possible that education's future lies in this behavioral progression. Education could become based on one lengthy and extremely complex continuum which would help insure that learning would not stop when one reached his grade level nor that it would cease after he left school entirely, but that it would continue throughout a lifetime as most educators would probably agree it should.

However, it must be made clear that the behavioral approach at this point is not education's panacea. It does have its limitations, too. It is very difficult, unfortunately, to describe one's affective qualities in behavioral terms despite the fact that they are a substantial part of human nature. This is not to say, however, that affect does not exist, but only that the sophistication needed to describe this quality is lacking. Also, until educators decide exactly what are the behaviors necessary to function well in the society, they cannot be included in the progression. Perhaps at a future date a method of observing and quantifying affect and necessary adaptive behaviors will be devised, but until then education might have to accept a behavioral progression as a beginning in the total description of positive behaviors. It is probably better to exclude such emotions until they can be behaviorally defined. Otherwise, parents, teachers and administrators might be deluded into thinking that a child possesses an ability even though they are unable to observe it is any behavioral way. In the end, the child loses if this should happen. If he has not learned a specific behavior but it is assumed that he has, the child might not be taught it and the likelihood of learning it will be decreased significantly.

Behavior, then, is essential to education. Without a change in behavior, an overt manifestation of a new adaptation to one's environment, any learning that may take place cannot be observed or

measured. And until it is, we can never be truly sure that it is part of the child's repertoire of behavioral characteristics. It is best to take nothing for granted in the education of a child, especially a retarded one. Although the behavioral approach might require a slight shifting in education's emphasis, it offers assurance that a child will not learn from a patchwork of expectations. If his teachers think in terms of the behavioral characteristics, his education can be accomplished in a much more progressive fashion.

Behavior is not only essential to the process of education, it is vital in the understanding of the specific population being considered. The definition of mental retardation offered by Heber in 1961, still recognized as the most accurate, places great importance on the area of behavior. It states that the mentally retarded person is one who shows subaverage general intellectual functioning (I.Q.) to such a degree that it results in impairment in one or more of the areas (maturation, learning, social adjustment) of <u>adaptive behavior</u>. According to the definition, then, an individual must show deficiency in both measured intelligence and adaptive behavior in order to be considered mentally retarded.

It is very important that behavior be included in this definition because there has been, in the past, a strong tendency to consider low measured intelligence the sole indicator of mental retardation. This resulted from the following misconceptions: all people have a "true I.Q.;" it is a stable, unchanging figure; using it, one person can be compared directly to another; and it can precisely determine where a child should be placed in school. Because I.Q. was considered the ultimate, mental retardation was defined in terms of it (a score below 80), and it determined educational policies such as whether a child was to be educated (I.Q. above 50) or trained (I.Q. below 50). With the inclusion of impaired

adaptive behavior as a component of retardation, people have begun to consider cultural background, prior experiences, mental age and social age in interpreting I. Q. scores. The child is, therefore, judged in terms of what he does and how he behaves.

The realization that test performances do not always correspond to level of deficiency in total adaptation has had a major impact in educational philosophy with regard to the retarded. For many years people identified the ability to learn with intelligence and concluded that a child with an I. Q. of less than 20 cannot learn. However, recent studies (Jensen, 1963) have shown that I. Q. is not a reliable predictor of rate or ability to learn with the mentally retarded. It has been found that using proper methods and discovering motivations can result in astounding levels of learning in the retarded (Bensberg, Cassell, Colwell, 1965). The mentally retarded can acquire information. However, their learning proceeds according to different "rules" from those of normals. These general "rules" shall be discussed in terms of Heber's three areas of adaptive behavior: maturation, learning, and social adjustment.

The retarded child's impaired maturation is made manifest in his delayed motor development. Francis and Rarick (1959) studied the gross motor abilities of the retarded using eleven motor performance tests to measure strength, running speed, agility and balance. They found retarded children to be significantly inferior to normal children on all tests with scores two to four years below their age norms. A possible contributing factor to this delayed motor development is the great number of retardates with physical disabilities. There are many children who have spinal disorders or orthopedic problems in addition to their mental retardation which interfere with walking and other physical activities. Also, the brain-injured retardate often displays a "clumsiness" that could result in lower motor performance scores. However, as delayed as the retarded child's motor development may be, generally he is still functioning at a higher level in this area than in language development.

One of the most severe examples of maturational impairment in the retarded child is his low verbal performance. Generally, if he speaks at all, the child does so in single words or fragments of sentences and uses very few vocabulary words. Although studies (Stevenson and Iscoe, 1955; Milgram, 1966; Hermelin and O'Connor, 1958) show that the mentally retarded child can transpose (choose the larger of the test pair rather than the one closest in size to the correct stimulus in the training pair) and conceptualize (classify objects according to concepts), they are not able to verbalize the principle behind nor the reason for their actions. It has been hypothesized (Griffith, Spitz, and Lipman, 1959) that this retardation in language development is the primary reason for lowered achievement of the retarded. This is because verbal processes and verbal production play a major role in performance. The authors suggest that learning situations and intelligence tests which are free of verbal performance requirements be devised. This would assure a more accurate evaluation of the child's intellectual functioning and learning.

Another area showing a maturational lag is motivation. Retarded children are generally motivated by what is typical for their mental age and emotional maturity rather than by what is usual for their chronological age. A tangible reward is a more appropriate reinforcer than an intangible one for the retardate, (Ugler and de Labry, 1962). Also, a retarded child will show a higher degree of performance when he knows what the goals are and what his reward will be. Thus, the more concrete the reinforcer is made, the greater the learning. Much of the retardate's poor performance is due to reinforcement which is too abstract or developmentally advanced rather than to lack of motivation.

It is generally agreed that the retarded child has a slower learning rate than that of normals and that their initial score, unlike normals, is not a good predictor of learning time. Thus, different

teaching techniques might need to be employed with the retarded. For example, although they do not appear to learn from repetition and drill, numerous studies (House and Zeaman, 1960; Johnson, 1958; Barnett and Cantor, 1957; Tizard and Loos, 1954) have shown that the retarded display a significant amount of transfer of training, in some cases more than normals. Using transfer techniques, a mentally retarded child can learn how to do relatively complicated tasks in a reasonable amount of time (although usually greater than that of normals).

Also, the retardate generally shows a lack in incidental learning. While a normal child gathers peripheral information (such as color of teacher's clothing, plan of room, etc.) in a learning situation, the retarded child will probably learn no more than the central theme. For this reason, while the normal child acquires this knowledge indirectly the retarded child must be specifically taught this knowledge to function in society. The results of a study done by Lillie (1966) corroborates this conclusion. He found that retarded children did not show improvement in the language and fine motor areas unless there was direct intervention on the part of the teacher and concluded that society cannot depend on incidental learning to educate its retarded. Hodges, McCandless and Spickler (1962) have studied this problem as it relates to curriculum development and have determined that curriculum must be designed specifically for the deficits of the retarded child, and that he cannot be placed in a program that uses a general approach to learning as is common in kindergarten classes. This conclusion echoes the phrase "educational programs to meet the needs of the child as determined by his behavioral characteristics."

Another deficit of the retarded child in the area of learning is a short memory span. However, retention can be greatly increased if the material is verbalized at the time of learning, if it is

overlearned, and if it is meaningful to the child. An important study done by Klausmeier, Feldhausen, and Check (1959) shows that low I.Q. children, although they may learn more slowly, will retain the information as well as normals if it is appropriate to their level of functioning. The implication of this finding is that teachers of the retarded should know each child's level in each area of the curriculum. In other words, the teacher should know what the child's behavioral characteristic is in each of the subjects and the characteristic that follows it. If the teacher is unaware of either, the child's retention will most likely not be its greatest.

The last indicator of the retarded child's impairment in learning is his short attention span resulting in an inordinate amount of glancing behavior. Recent evidence presented by Turnure (1964, 1970) leads him to conclude that the "distractability" of retardates might well be considered an attempt to get help rather than malproductive inattentiveness. That is, when the child is unable to solve a problem, he looks up possibly in an effort to get the teacher's attention. This explanation certainly could account for the increased lack of attention to tasks displayed by the retarded. Since they experience more failure than normals, retarded children tend to be more outer-directed, more dependent on external guidance. However, since in the long run it is more beneficial for the retarded child to learn to function using his own abilities, an attempt should be made to reduce this outer-directed distractability. Possibly, setting up success situations with the gradual introduction of minor failures to ensure realism, might strengthen the child's ability to attend to a task.

Closely related to the retardate's outer-directedness which results in a short attention span, is his tendency toward self-devaluation. Owing partly to his low intellectual functioning, the retarded

child can experience a high proportion of doubts, rejection and failure. As a result of the inordinate demands of his environment compared to his physical and mental competencies, he often learns not to trust his own abilities and judgment. A study carried out by Wachs and Cromwell (1960) found that a retarded child, if weakened with failure or under stress, would change his responses to agree with those of the adult rather than stand by his own beliefs. Since it is felt that this devaluation of the self is counterproductive to a successful social adjustment, the authors suggest that teachers of a retarded child stress the child's abilities and judgments rather than their authority. It is a generally accepted fact that the mentally retarded need more human support and more constant reinforcement than do normals (see Rothstein, 1961, p. 60). It is possible that many of the rules of the regular classroom must be ignored in order to serve special education's purposes.

A second manifestation of the impaired social adjustment of the retarded child is his inclination toward rigidity or perseveration. The retardate often displays stereotypical behavior, the inability to change responses with changes in stimuli, and the incapacity to adjust to new tasks or situations. It is suggested that the retardate's deficit in experiences could account for his rigid behaviors. New situations are more difficult for the retarded child because he is offered so few of them. A study done by Holt (1958) in England found that 41% of those families with a retarded child restricted or in some way limited their activities because of the retardate. Adding to this figure the fact that many retardates are raised in adverse environmental circumstances without the advantages that middle class family life affords (often one or more parents or siblings are also retarded) further helps to explain this rigid maladaptive behavior. What might be needed is the introduction of new stimuli and new

situations which are enough like the old ones so as not to threaten the child, but different enough to offer him a new experience.

We now have a fairly accurate, though general description, of the behavior of the majority of mentally retarded population. To summarize, they display delayed motor development, low verbal performance immature motivation, in the areas of maturation. In learning, their deficits include a slow learning rate, a lack of incidental learning, a short memory span and a short attention span. In social adjustment, their maladaptive behaviors include a tendency to self-devaluation and rigidity.

For the retarded child, like all others, growing and learning are dynamic processes greatly influenced by their environment. Since expectations have pronounced effects in performance, as was discussed earlier, the concept of the retarded child as somehow different from the normal might significantly prejudice his development. Is it possible to consider the mentally retarded child as basically similar to the normal but retarded in intellectual functioning adaptive behavior? The reverse, to consider the retarded child as basically different from the normal but having the same needs and showing the same patterns of development would seem somewhat unfair to him. From all evidence, it appears that the former conception gives a truer perspective of the retardate than the latter.

The mentally retarded child shows the same developmental sequence and the same behavioral characteristics as the normal child in physical, mental and psychological growth. The two populations differ only in rate and degree of development. More specifically the retarded child is slower to mature in all these areas and even as an adult does not progress as far along the continuum of development as does the normal child. However, as far as he does go, he usually follows the standard growth patterns.

In the area of physical growth, the retarded child, like the normal child, crawls before he walks, grasps before he feeds himself, runs before he rides a bicycle and generally exhibits all the physical behavioral characteristics of normals. It was believed that retarded children could be differentiated by certain physical traits called "stigmata of degeneration": low-set ears, widely spaced eyes, low foreheads, etc. However, it has been suggested (Schain, 1970) that many of these traits have been found in normals and even to a degree in high achievers. It seems in physical development, excluding rate, there is little to set apart a retarded child.

In the area of mental growth or learning the same conclusion as that concerning physical growth can be drawn. There is some evidence (Fuller, Sloan, Berg) to show that retarded learning curves are much the same as those of normals. One could expect as much since mentally retarded children display the same learning processes as others: those of imitation, reasoning, generalization, transfer, conceptualization, and value formation. Also, the retarded population shows the same variability in learning as the normal one does. As is true of all children, the retardate shows better performance in some areas than others and derives pleasure from discovering and mastering his own skill. For both normal and retarded populations the instructor's (whether teacher or parent) relationship with the child is of great significance in helping or hindering learning. In addition, the normal and retarded child will make better academic progress if the home and school cooperate in their educational efforts. This includes working toward a common objective and employing the same methods to achieve it.

The last area in which the retardate compares favorably with the normal is psychological growth. Both need and seek love, security, recognition and a sense of belonging. Both must be taught independence. The retarded child's motivation follows the same "rules" as the normal's. He will acquire

little or no learning unless he is motivated,and what is motivating or interesting to one child may have no or possibly negative influence on another. The development of motivation follows the same sequence for retardates as for normals. It differs only in that for retardates the progression from the primary to the secondary motivational system is slower than for normals. As Cromwell (1960) found, the retardate shows the same first motivational system. In this system, the young child approaches situations because they are pleasurable and avoids situations because they are painful. Like the normal, as he matures, the retarded child approaches situations that afford him a chance to succeed, and avoids situations in which he feels he will fail. His motivational system changes from one based on biological incentives to a more mature one based on conceptional incentives. No longer does the child, whether retarded or normal, strive for pleasure, but for success, a much more developmentally complex motive.

From all current evidence, it appears that in the three areas of growth--physical, mental and psychological--the retardate differs not in type and sequence, but in rate and level of development achieved. Therefore, the retarded can be described by the same behavioral characteristics as those of a younger normal. A retarded child with a chronological age of 5 years who displays the behavioral characteristic, "grasps spoon in fist" (#21.0 on Feeding/Eating strand, Behavioral Characteristics Progression) is being described by a characteristic of a one-year-old normal. The characteristic does not differ; only the age (the indicator of the rate of development) varies. The same behavioral characteristic could be applied to the other extreme of the intellectual spectrum--the gifted. The gifted child might display "grasps spoon in fist" at six months rather than at the normal one year. The

same behavioral characteristics could be used by all populations of handicapped children as well as normals, including the mentally, behaviorally, and, most probably, the physically exceptional. A listing of behavioral characteristics, such as the Behavioral Characteristics Progression (BCP) developed by this project, not limited by age association could be used for the total human population. In this way, children functioning at all intellectual, behavioral, and physical levels could be placed in proper perspective. One could, therefore, see how a child relates to the rest of the population without being prejudiced by the age at which his behavior "normally" develops. Also, one could readily see which behaviors the child has yet to develop to progress along the BCP. In these ways, the Behavioral Characteristics Progression could free the education of the exceptional child from traditional limitations such as those described earlier in this material.

APPENDIX 8.8

ASSESSMENT TOOLS, CURRICULUM GUIDES, AND DEVELOPMENTAL CHARTS

USED FOR THE BCP

APPENDIX 8.8

ASSESSMENT TOOLS, CURRICULUM GUIDES, AND DEVELOPMENTAL CHARTS USED FOR THE BCP

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Fresno, California

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Earl E. Balthazar, Ph.D.
Central Wisconsin Colony and Training School
Madison, Wisconsin

Bayley Scales of Infant Development (1969)
Bayley
The Psychological Corporation
New York

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Orange County Department of Education
Santa Ana, California

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Lauretta Bender, M.A., M.D.

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B. S. Bloom

Cain-Levine Social Competency Scale (1963)
Leo F. Cain and Samuel Levine

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Breckenridge

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Hurlock

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Gesell and Ilg

Child Development and Adjustment (1962)
Crow and Crow

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San Francisco Unified School District
San Francisco, California

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Anderson, Miles, Matheny

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Santa Cruz County Office of Education
Santa Cruz, California

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California State Board of Education

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San Mateo County Superintendent of Schools
Redwood City, California

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Austin, Texas

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Josiah B. Dodds, Ph.D.
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Devereux Schools
Santa Barbara, California

Deviant Behavior Inventory (1966)
Novich, Rosenfeld, Bloch, Dawson

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Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction
Division of Handicapped Children (1969)

Evaluation Form for Physically and Mentally Handicapped Minors (1969)
San Francisco Unified School District
San Francisco, California

Experimental Curriculum for Young Mentally Retarded Children (1961)
Frances P. Conner and Mabel E. Talbot
Teachers' College, Columbia University, New Yor

Fairview Self-Help Scale (1970)
Robert T. Ross, Ph.D.
Fairview State Hospital
Costa Mesa, California

Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Motor Perception (1964)
M. Frostig and D. Horne

Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test

Gough Adjective Check List (1950)
Harrison G. Gough
University of California, Berkeley, California

Growth and Development Charts of Children
Arnold Gesell

Guidelines for Developing a Course of Study and Curriculum for Mentally Retarded Minors in California Public Schools (1967)
California State Board of Education

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Yonkers-on Hudson, New York

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H. S. Thorpe, M.D.
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C. G. Van Riper

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Nashville, Tennessee

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Hayward, California

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P. Catell

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Los Angeles, California

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Strang

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Frank Hewett

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Peer Rating Instrument (1967)
Raths, Jonas, Rothstein, Wasserman
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Ann McKim
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Progress Assessment Chart of Social Development (1965)
H. C. Gunzburg, M.A., Ph.D.
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Eli M. Bower
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APPENDIX 8.9

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